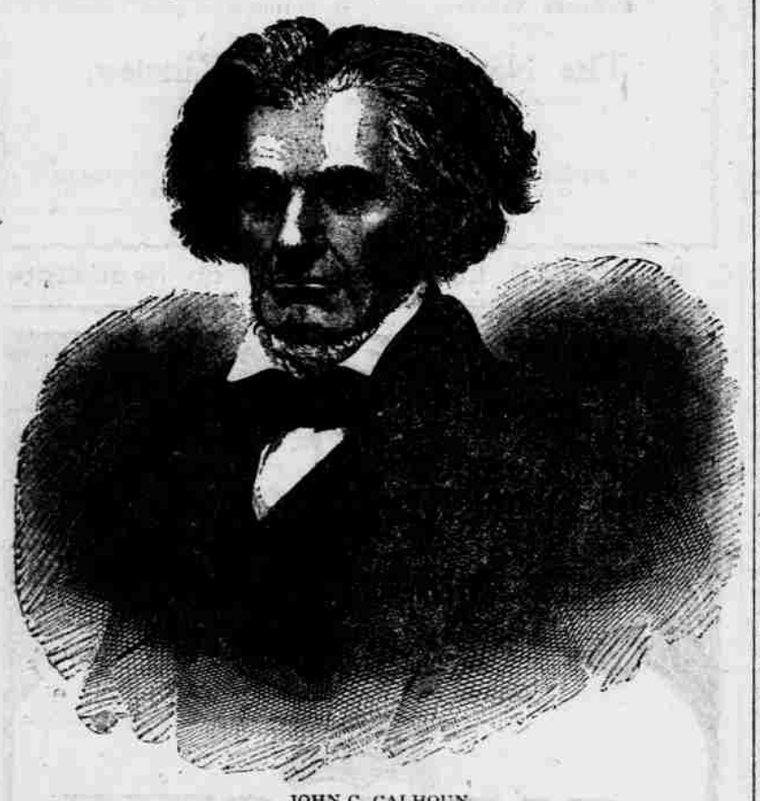
Vice-Presidency Becoming a Political Bugaboo

Hard to Find Desirable Running Mates for Presidential Candidates—Not Always So.

DESIRABLE candidates for the vice presidency of the United States are hard to secure. The two leading political parties of the country find increasing difficulty in inducing men of political prestige and promising political future to accept the second place upon the national ticket. Both parties realize that much depends upon the character and record and political strength of the running mate of the president for the success of their tickets, and so the effort is made to secure the likeliest man possible, and generally the "likeliest man possible" has other plans and political ambitions, and objects to being run upon the vice presidential sidetrack, for such it has come to be.

Just why election to the vice presidency should practically end a man's political career, at least as far as aspiration for the presidential office is concerned, no one seems quite able to explain, but that it does is made apparent by a study of the political records for the past 30 years or more. No vice president since Martin Van Buren has been elected to the presidency, and that was away back in 1836. Van Buren was elected as vice president in 1832 on the ticket with Andrew Jackson, and four years later he became the successful candidate for president, but no vice president since that day has had a like distinction.



JOHN C. CALHOUN.

A striking illustration of a man whose political death-knell was sounded by his accepting the vice presidency. The only vice president who resigned.

When the politician who has higher aspirations hears the buzz of the vice presidential bee he takes to cover immediately and seeks by every possible subterfuge to escape being stung. He does not want to appear indifferent to the honor his party would thrust upon him; he does not want the voters of the country to believe that he is not patriotic and loyal to his nation and willing to serve it, but he does want to miss that second place on the ticket.

It was a pretty game of hide and seek which Roosevelt played with the leaders of his party. He did not want the nomination, in fact, of all things political he did not want, the vice presidential office was that thing. The renomination of President McKinley was inevitable and he knew that his presidential aspirations would have to go over another four years, and in the mean time he vastly preferred the governorship of New York state to any office outside of the presidency. And so with all the strenuousity of his strenuous nature he dodged and shooed off the vice presidential bee when it came buzzing around. But with greater pesistency than was its wont, the political insect stayed right by its desired victim and at last succeeded in inserting its sting in a vulnerable spot and landed its man.

There were two reasons, perhaps, which made Roosevelt a most desirable running mate for McKinley. First of all he was a strong man politically, and his war record was sure to win many votes for the ticket, and in the next place he was a man the leading politicians of the party feared because of his strength and personality, and they thought to do a neat double turn by placing him on the vice presidential shelf, but, of course, the untimely death of President McKinley changed the situation somewhat, and Roosevelt found his ambition to occupy the presidential chair unexpectedly and suddenly realized.

There have been four other vice presidents who have succeeded to the presidency through the death of the chief executive: Arthur, on the assassination of Garfield; Johnson, on the assassination of Lincoln; Fiimore, on the death of Taylor; and Tyler, on the death of William Henry Harrison.

Five vice presidents have died while in office, but the antipathy to the office cannot be because of this fact, for the presidential office is as fatal to its occupant as that of the vice presidency, with the increasing danger, emphasized by the assassination of McKinley, of an untimely and violent death at the hands of some anarchist. The first vice president to die in office was George Clinton, elected on the ticket with James Madison in 1808. The next one to vacate office through the eternal summons was William R. King, who was President Pierce's running mate in 1852. Then came Henry Wilson, who was elected at the time Grant was given a second term. President Cleveland's associate, Thomas A. Hendricks, was the next one to go, and the death of Garret A. Hobart President McKinley's colleague, is fresh in mind.

But if there is a growing reluctance on the part of political lights to accepting the second place on the national ticket it was not always so, for in the early history of the country the vice president repeatedly succeeded to the presidency. Washington's associate in office, John Adams, was elected to the presidency when Washington refused to accept a third term. And Thomas Jefferson, who was President Adams' associate as vice president, succeeded him in the presidency. The break in this regular advancement came with Aaron Burr and as much, perhaps, from the unprincipled conduct of the latter as from anything else.

Before party organization and formal nominations, and the adoption of the law for the election of presidential electors by popular vote, the legislators chose the electors and they were unpledged to any candidate. Each elector voted for two candidates for president and the candidate having the next largest vote was declared the vice president. The Jefferson-Burr controversy arose over the fact that both received an equal number of votes—73—and although it had been tacitly understood that Jefferson was the presidential candidate and entitled to the election Burr saw his opportunity to slip into the presidential office. The contest was thrown into congress and eventually decided by the election of Jefferson. This difficulty made it apparent that the candidates for president and vice president must be clearly indicated and from that time on until parties were formed and national conventions held for the nomination of candidates, no such confusion was ever again permitted to occur.

It has been charged that John C Calhoun, one of the ablest statesmen which this country ever produced, and who was a strong defender of the slavery rights of the southern states labored to destroy the union that he might be the chief of a southern confederacy, because he could not be president of the union. That he had ambitions to become the head of this government cannot be gainsaid, and why he, keen politician and able statesman that he was, never attained the gaol of his desires is not clear. This fact, however, is strikingly significant. Calhoun was vice president under John Quincy Adams and again under the first term of Jackson's administration. Just how much his election to this office proved a barrier to his presidential aspirations cannot be determined. He resigned his office under Jackson, and who can say but that it was with the hope that events would shape themselves to make him the opposition candidate for president at the next election. That he did not become such is a matter of history, and the fact that with but one exception the vice president never has succeeded to the presidency since the days of Burr is significant, even if it does not establish a principle governing national politics.

WILLIS S. EDSON.

The Importance of Colors

ATTRACTIVE AFTERNOON GOWNS FOR SUMMER.

One is a plaid tailor-made, trimmed with bands of black satin, held with strips of galon and buttons. The other is a cloth gown with waistcoat trimmed with little buttons, and waist-belt of taffetas.

THE question of color is a very important one, and one to which I think the girl of to-day does not give sufficient attention. Continually do I warn the fair-haired girl against the folly of wearing pale blue, which makes her appearance quite insipid and detracts from the beauty of any golden tones she may have in her hair. Palest yellow and pale greens are her shades. Indeed I have known her to look beautiful in orange and in emerald green. Black, of course, is an admirable contrast to a fair skin and general beauty of complexion. White, too, is becoming as a rule—very often a blue-white in preference to cream. A rather crude, bright shade of blue, almost a Rickett's, is often perfectly beautiful with golden hair, but it must be a ruddy gold—not a yellow gold. Of course, in choosing colors, the eyes ought to receive a fair share of consideration, and these are often in variance with the tone of the hair. But I do emphatically say that the fair-haired girl should avoid pale blue.

Turquoise blue is the color par excellence for the blue-eyed, dark-haired woman. As for the red-haired person who chooses pale blue; well, all I can say about it is if she could see herself as others see her blue would be about the last color she would wear. I advise the red-haired girl, especially in the evening, to wear brown in preference to black; the former is more uncommon and more becoming to her. I have known a flaxen-haired girl to look quite adorable in scarlet, but this is perhaps somewhat old for a girl.

Some dark people should wear pale mauves or purples, and I have also known fair-haired women look well in the same shades. As I say, you should not judge only by the hair; complexion and health have a great deal to do with the matter.

It is a mistake to think that black is universally becoming; it is, however, for the debutante—very often the most effective thing she could wear. Older women look quite charming in silver gray and white. I do not think black for ordinary wear is becoming to the woman whose hair is turning gray, though, of course, a stately dame with snow-white tresses, dressed in the evening in black velvet, looks perfectly charming. But then, as I always say, black at its best is beautiful, while black from the "useful" aspect is seldom really nice.

The empire sleeve is very effective with long hanging strands of chiffon from the puff, caught up in fantastic fashion at the wrist. Believe me, strands of chiffon, plain or accordion-plaited, or hanging stoles of lace, are, in nearly every case, an improvement to a picture frock or tea gown. I cannot lay too much stress upon these points, for the picture frock of to-day and the revival of these old-world modes can give many a plain woman an opportunity of becoming almost beautiful in the evening. So many women are picturesque, though not in the least good-looking. In a tailor-made frock they can never achieve more than tidiness and suitability, but in the evening, clad in masses of lace and chiffon, they can look ethereal, interesting, and almost beautiful. Consequently, it behoves every woman of this type to study carefully really artistic dressing, and to blend fashions of all periods until she arrives at what suits her individual style.

ELLEN OSMONDE.

THE MODES OF PARIS

PARIS.—It is curious how many toilettes de reception are being made up in brown over here, not, however, as much for Parisians as for Americans and English women. We have worn brown all the winter, and look for lighter things for summer wear; there has also been a perfect rage for brown taffeta and spotted silks, as well as for brown chiffon, chiffon-voile, and soie de chine, for evening wear; these are mostly trimmed with beautiful embroideries, verging from deepest brown to palest yellow. The lemon tone, though lovely in itself, is rarely becoming; nevertheless, this particular shade intermingled with a tender green will be a feature of the toilette de ville.

White, of course, maintains its popularity, and will gain further success, for white does duty on so many occasions, and nearly always looks well. It is the favorite frock in cloth for the races, and in souple fabrics it is the most popular for the toilette de diner and the demi-toilette.

Silver gray and lace are very chic, and crepon de soie, in palest pinks, blues and mauves, is in request for the toilette de jeune fille.

Some of the new coarse linen embroideries (and here white is very popular) will be an important feature of the early summer frocks for the Bois. We are promised some coarse canvases, very like linen, with little patterns woven therein. In most cases these frocks are for the street or the Bois in the morning, and, therefore, will be simple to a degree, made with very high collars, bolero bodice and the full kilted skirts that clear the ground.

The real trotteuse, namely, the skirt above the ankles, is only worn in the country. The skirt for town wear just clears the ground, and the toilette de reception falls in heavy folds all round the feet, and is gauged, gathered, tucked, frilled and flounced in every possible way. All the Pompadour silks and taffetas must naturally be made up in this wise to suit the period in which they were originated. Every form of ruching may be used and fantastic old-world trimmings. Some are pinked out, some are doubled and arranged in patterns.

AN AFTERNOON TOILETTE.

In white cloth trimmed with flat tucks and circles formed of galon; fichu of mousseline de soie.

Many of the best toilettes for elderly women are in black and white, rose du Barry, taffeta, pervenche blue, and pale lemon.

ANNETTE GIBVE.

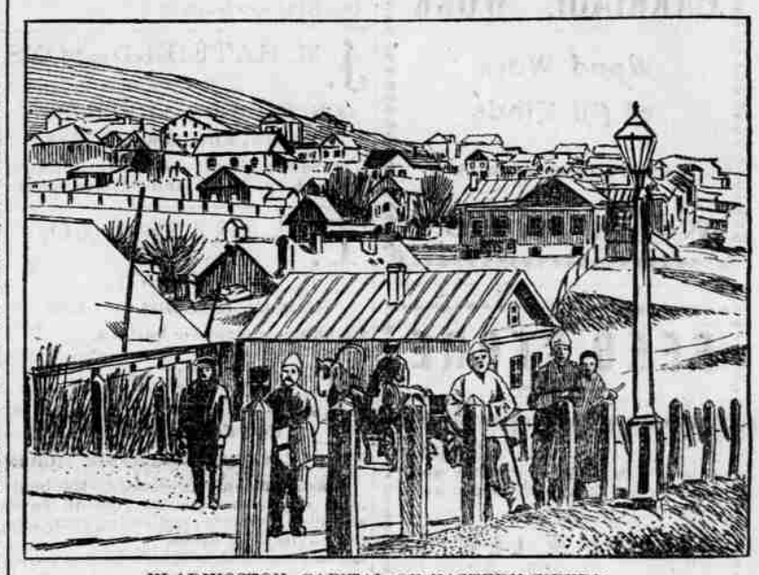
Agricultural Productive Possibilities of Siberia

The Future of This Vast Region Demands Markets for Which Russia Is Fighting.

RUSSIAN dreams of commercial supremacy, both for Europe and the far east, are based upon the development of Siberia. To see that vast, and as yet undeveloped, country the granary of the world is the ambition of the Russian government. To force its development Russia has been willing to make many sacrifices, and it is in line with this idea that she has appropriated so much of China's territory. A study of the agricultural possibilities of Siberia is interesting, especially at this time.

The population of Siberia amounts to about 5,700,000 people. This figure alone suffices to show of what development the country is yet capable in view of its enormous material resources. As a matter of fact, colonization, more or less systematic, begun but recently, after the government undertook its regulation and direction. Immigration, which during the eighties amounted to but 10,000 to 20,000 per year, has been steadily swelling since 1892, and reached about 224,000 in the year 1899. It is thus clear that Siberia contains an available area for the cultivation of cereals, for almost all these immigrants are agriculturists and continue their occupation on the new sites.

Official estimates of the Russian government, given some 20 years ago, put the cultivable area as high as 268,000 English square miles, or 32.4 per cent. of the total area for western Siberia and 653,760 square miles for eastern Siberia.



VLADIVOSTOK, CAPITAL OF EASTERN SIBERIA.

Yadrintzeff, one of the best authorities on Siberia, while reproducing these figures in his work on Siberia, makes, however, the significant statement that these estimates have but "a relative value." Since that time the knowledge of Siberia among Russians has increased, with the effect that the cultivable area is being estimated lower every year, and, according to the most recent calculation, constitutes but eight or nine per cent. of the entire area, about 425,000 English square miles.

In western Siberia the cultivable area is to be looked for in what the official report calls the "zone of cultivation," i. e., the region between 55 and 58½ degrees north (in the Altai region only to the fifty-first degree north), containing altogether about 340,000 English square miles, with about 2,500,000 population. Out of this total area a considerable part would have to be excluded, made up of marshes and moors, salt and sweet water lakes, particularly the so-called Barbara steppe, so that only about 127,500 English square miles here, and 65,000 English square miles in the Altai region, might be regarded really cultivable land. The amount of yearly precipitation is considerably less for western Siberia than it is for Germany or Russia under equal latitudes, the yearly average in the agricultural zone being but 380 millimeters, as compared with 500 millimeters in the northern part of Russia. However, this circumstance does not yet present any danger to the cultivation of cereals, for the amount of precipitation during the three summer months is 75 millimeters, only ten millimeters less than that for northern Russia. The agricultural zone in western Siberia shows about the same features as the regions of western Canada, Manitoba, Alberta, Saskatchewan; just as there, a severe winter lasting six months is followed by a short transition period and a short and warm summer.

South of western Siberia proper, between the fifty-fifth and forty-second degree of latitude, extends the governorship general of the steppe, whose northern border is touched by the Siberian Trans-Continental. Out of the 530,000 English square miles taken up by these regions, the districts of Akmolinsk and Semipalatinsk (about 380,000 English square miles), while having a higher annual temperature, suffer, however, from lack of rainfall, so that agriculture can be safely carried on without artificial irrigation only in the northern border of this region, and also in the moister river valleys; but even there the crops often suffer from droughts.

As regards the agricultural possibilities of eastern Siberia, or the provinces of Yenisseisk, Irkutzk and Yakutsk, it must be said that the area available for cultivation is even smaller there than in the west. Owing to the mountainous, precipitous, in some parts exceedingly cold and swampy character of the country, only a little over 100,000 English square miles are regarded as fit for cultivation. Climatic conditions are less favorable here than in the west, the yearly amount of rain and snow fall being but 300 mm. and for the summer 50 (instead of 175, as in the west). As a matter of fact, even the region most favored for wheat cultivation, the district of Minussinsk (a little over 40,000 English square miles) had already to resort to artificial irrigation.

Of great importance for agricultural purposes is the trans-Baikal district (south of eastern Siberia proper), which contains an area of about 230,000 English square miles and almost entirely falls within the cultivable zone. The extremely mountainous character of this district, intersected as it is by the Stanovoi range, reduces, however, the really cultivable area to about one-third (about 85,000 English square miles). This region, as a matter of fact, is regarded by the Russian government as the prospective "chief granary of the whole Amur-littoral region." On account of the cold, snowless winters, only summer or spring cereals can be cultivated.

Quite different features in regard to soil, climate and vegetation are presented by the regions of the Amur and the Ousoury, both on the Pacific coast. For while eastern and western Siberia suffer very often from droughts, the Amur region suffers from excessive humidity, which is unfavorable to agriculture. The natural fertility of the soil is not great. Although harvests obtained on virgin soil are abundant, yet the crops are bad in quality and but little nutritive. Diverse mountain ranges crossing these regions and very wide swamps reduce the cultivable area to about 40,000 English square miles (out of a total of 200,000 to 225,000 English square miles).

Almost the same characteristics apply to the Ousoury region, extending along the coast of the Pacific. The climate, although warmer, yet shows the same peculiarities with reference to excessive moisture as the Amur region, the averages in this regard being on the whole still less favorable to agriculture than those for the Amur region. The entire area capable of cultivation is estimated at a little over 63,000 English square miles.

Summing up the figures given for the cultivable areas in the different parts of Siberia, we get a total of about 425,000 English square miles. This total would still be equivalent to the combined areas of Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska and both Dakotas.

The total crops of Siberia for an average year are given by official estimates as about 160,000,000 poods, of which 85,000,000 fall to the share of western Siberia. According to these calculations, the Siberian harvest reaches but one-twelfth of that of European Russia. The corresponding figures in the year for 1902 are 3,712,000 poods tons (European Russia), as against 124,000,000 poods for four provinces of Siberia. The amount, however, to be deducted for seed grain is considerable, as for winter grain the yield is not more than sixfold, for spring grains even less (four to five fold), about as much as in European Russia, and this notwithstanding the greater freshness of the soil. There were exported during recent years about 10,000,000 to 12,000,000 poods from western Siberia, where the great rivers, as the Obi, Irtish and Tobol, presented convenient means of communication up to the Ural. For the year 1898, however, the amount of Siberian wheat which actually reached the west European border (i. e., Prussia and Austria) or Russian ports of export is given as over 40,000 carloads, which, multiplied by 600 poods, would give 24,000,000 poods exported to Europe. The rest of the marketable cereals has been consumed within the country itself, mainly by the mining districts, particularly the places of gold washing.

Without going into tedious calculations, which at best would be but conjectural, it might be stated that for the coming 30 or 40 years Siberia's chances of becoming the "granary" of the world and a serious competitor of American wheat are not great.